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ABSTRACT

Designed for local governments, service organizations, and volunteer citizens, the workshop presents the theory and practice of leadership styles, communication skills, and problem solving. Through learning activities and practice, participants gain experience in communication, agenda sharing, goal setting, and personal leadership style. From short summaries and checklists, participants learn about the communication process, barriers to effective communication, questions effective in furthering communication, planning group meetings, preparing for meetings, survey and consensus techniques, brainstorming, force field analysis, and leadership. A copy of the T-P (Task dimension, people dimension) questionnaire and the workshop evaluation form are included. (SB)

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COMMUNITY SKILLS: a workshop on leadership and communication

THEORY AND PRACTICE
-LEADERSHIP STYLES
-COMMUNICATION SKILLS
-PROBLEM SOLVING

DESIGNED FOR:
-LOCAL GOVERNMENTS
-SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS
-VOLUNTEER CITIZENS

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WARM-UP

find someone who.....

FIND SOMEONE WHO HAS OR IS.....

INSTRUCTIONS: Find someone who has done one of these things. Fill in the blank with that person's name (use person's name only once.)

Plucked a chicken	_____
Got an elk	_____
Knows how to weave	_____
Who's slept in the snow	_____
Who planted a tree	_____
Who reads Playboy	_____
Does not like peanuts	_____
Caught a steelhead	_____
Who drinks mint tea	_____
Who swims the butterfly stroke	_____
Who eats raw fish	_____
Who has sheared a fish	_____
Who can do 30 sit-ups	_____
Who has been on TV	_____
Who owns one car	_____
Born outside the USA	_____
Dances the tango	_____
Raises mushrooms	_____
Written a grant	_____
Knows a zucchini relish recipe	_____
Knows a place to pick huckleberries	_____

THEORY PAPER:
COMMUNICATION PROCESS

COMMUNICATION

One process common to all groups is communication. Although there are a variety of definitions, we are defining it as the transmission of information from one person to another in a face-to-face setting and includes both verbal and nonverbal interaction. Who communicates? How often? For how long? Who communicates to whom? What is the style of communication, e.g., agressive, questioning, pedantic, humorous? On what levels do members communicate? Is there a climate in the group that allows members to openly share frustration or is frustration handled by in-group asides, or in other ways?

Communication in healthy, well-functioning groups has four important features--openness, full participation, trust and honesty in expressing feelings.

OPENNESS IN COMMUNICATION

Openness means sharing information needed to get work done, or feeling resulting from interaction of group members working together. Confiding or confessing are often mistaken for openness of communication. Rather, through open communication, group members gain information needed for effective accomplishment of its work and for the development of group-centered orientation, attitudes and behaviors.

TRUST

Openness of communication sometimes involves taking risks. Trust is an important feature of interpersonal communication if group members are to be open toward one another. If group members trust one another, fear of being ridiculed or "put down" is diminished--communication is healthy.

FULL PARTICIPATION

Healthy groups value contributions, opinions, feelings and ideas of all members. Individual members are viewed as important resources for accomplishing goals and tasks. Thus, full participation in the communication within the group is solved.

EXPRESSING FFELINGS

People working together in groups experience feelings about one another, positive and negative. Feelings of anger, frustration and embarrassment are more difficult for many to express than are feelings of satisfaction and pleasure. Information about member feelings is important to a group.

FREEING AND BINDING COMMUNICATION

Communication among members of a group is facilitated by some kinds of responses and inhibited by others. Freeing responses encourages openness of communication, trust and, thus, full participation. Binding responses inhibit openness and trust. Some examples of freeing responses are:

- Paraphrasing to check if you are hearing what is said
- Perception checking to see if your impressions of others' feelings are accurate
- Describing behaviors which influence you
- Describing your feelings about others' communication

Some examples of inhibiting or binding responses are:

- Changing the subject without explanation
- Attributing motives to others
- Advising and persuading
- Judging or criticizing others
- Expressing approval or disapproval of others based upon your own standards

If you observe for freeing and binding responses, it will give you a good sense of the health of the communication processes.

It is important for the group leader to help improve communication.

Think about the communication processes in client groups you are working with--

DO YOU OBSERVE....

People continually trying to make their position known and persuading others of its merits, talking past one another and unwilling to hear what others say?

Unpleasant feelings remaining hidden?

Feelings of others being ignored--little checking to find out what they are?

Voices easily becoming lout and emphatic regardless of the issue?

Seeing outsiders and their views as threats?

A lot of talk about trivial issues with little attention to important ones?

OR DO YOU OBSERVE....

People continually checking to make sure they understand what others are saying and speaking to relevant issues?

People feeling free to report directly to others if something is bothering them?

People showing concern for the feelings of others--checking the accuracy of impressions?

Voices remaining calm unless the issue is sensitive or very controversial?

Continually listening to views of others outside the group?

Important and fundamental issues and differences are common topics of conversation?

As a leader, careful observation and analysis of your groups will give you important information you can use to determine how to assist them to establish healthy patterns of interpersonal communication.

In addition to acting as a reflector for the group through sharing your observations, there are other procedures you can utilize to assist it to improve its interpersonal communication.

- Skill building: You can model good communication skills and intervene on occasion to provide "training" in the four basic communication skills--describing behavior, checking perceptions, describing feelings, and paraphrasing.
- Seating arrangements have an important influence upon group communication. You can work with group leaders to ensure that group members can see one another during meeting interactions.
- Group agreements about communication can begin to change norms toward more healthy interaction especially after group members have experienced some of the effect of poor interpersonal communication patterns.

BARRIERS TO EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

SELF-CENTEREDNESS

An over-preoccupation with one's self--"I" "me" "mine"; an inability or reluctance to be concerned about others or to extend interests outward beyond the self.

BEING TUNED OUT

Intentionally ignoring, disregarding, or avoiding communication with others. Believing that because people are different, for whatever reason, e.g., age, appearance, color, race, religion, or sex, that communication is too difficult and not worth the effort.

FAILURE TO LISTEN

To really listen, requires concentration and effort. Many times we only "half" listen; we wander off in our mind or are preoccupied with other things and fail to give our undivided attention to the person speaking to us.

LANGUAGE

Words often have more than one meaning and are frequently used inaccurately. Words are the means we use to express the ideas, feelings, thoughts, etc., that have meaning to us. Meanings are in people not in the words. As all are different individuals, words mean different things to different people.

PREJUDICE

Preconceived and unreasonable opinions or judgments formed before the facts are known. They are usually favorable and are marked by fear, suspicion, intolerance, and hatred.

FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS

Feelings and emotions are powerful forces that vary in their intensity and expression. It is obvious how different we think, act, and speak when we feel cool, calm, and affectionate, and when we feel angry, upset and hateful.

BACKGROUND AND EXPERIENCE

Each person is unique. It is most unlikely that any two persons have experienced the same things in the same way with identical meanings. Each person learns, understands, feels, and speaks from the store of past experience.

HEALTH

It should be obvious from our own experience and that of others that physical and mental ailments, such as pain, tiredness, nervousness, vigor, strength, weakness, and disease, limit our ability to think, listen and speak effectively.

RATE OF HEARING

We are capable of listening to spoken words at a rate faster than which they can be spoken; roughly four to one. This allows us free time to be engaged in other mental activities while listening.

STATUS RELATIONSHIPS

Rarely are two people are on equal status relationship. Usually one person is either older or younger, has more or less power and influence, more or less intelligence, is stronger or weaker, e.g., parent and child, boss and employee.

REASONING AND THINKING PROCESSES

These are very complex processes and it is possible to make the wrong deduction, a faulty generalization, or to attach the wrong meaning to a speaker's words.

UNCLEAR MESSAGES

Language is largely an individual experience. Words with private meanings that are spoken in inarticulate fashion or used in uncommon or incorrect ways make it difficult or impossible to interpret. Messages put together in clumsy fashion or incoherently expressed result in confusion.

HIGHLY CHARGED AND EMOTION-LADEN WORDS

These words vary from one locale to the next and are different for age, race, and sex groups. They tend to have dual meanings and can be used to arouse the more base emotions and behavior, and to cause a wide variety of reactions, e.g., hostility, aggression, withdrawal, defensiveness, insult, fear, and reprisal.

REINTERPRETATION OF MESSAGES

A speaker may be saying one thing, but because the listener is not properly tuned in or is inattentive or whatever, he hears something the speaker did not say. He, instead, hears what he wants to hear and gives the message the meaning that he wants it to have.

A TENDENCY TO CRITICIZE, EVALUATE, AND JUDGE

A critic is one who is quick on the flaw. If one looks for weaknesses or errors that will allow him to make a "put down," then he cannot focus on the whole communication.

LACK OF EMPATHY

Empathy is the ability to think, feel, and perceive like the other, to take their role and to understand situations, ideas, and feelings from their point of view.

DISREGARDING FEEDBACK

Feedback is the messages that tell a speaker how his message has been accepted and interpreted, e.g., smiles, grunts, frowns, yawns, attentiveness, questions, etc. To disregard feedback signals is to risk sending inadequate and unclear messages.

FAILURE TO ASK QUESTIONS

Verbal messages can be given many interpretations, and by asking questions one can be sure of the meaning and intent of the communication.

FEAR

Fear is a powerful emotion that limits behavior. One usually tries to avoid what one fears. If a person is afraid of others, himeself, or of not "looking good," or feels that he'll fail or make a goof or whatever, then communication is inadequate.

TALKING DOWN OR PATRONIZING

To "talk down" to someone is the result of an "I'm than you" attitude and creates a superior-inferior relationship that engenders tension, disrepsect, and even open hostility, all of which are most effective at stopping the effective exchange of ideas and information.

Adapted from materials prepared by Cooperative Extension Service
in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture

COMMUNICATION:
HELPFUL QUESTIONS

The questions below can be used to help clarify ideas and to facilitate group discussion.

1. To clarify purpose, ask

   - What is your goal in suggesting or using this idea?
   - What are you after?
   - Why would you be doing it?

2. To clarify definitions, ask

   - What do you mean when you say that..?
   - What would be some examples of your idea?

3. To clarify the sources of someone's ideas, ask

   - What groups or authors agree with you?
   - Where were these ideas started?
   - Where could we get data to support your ideas?
   - Is that based on personal experience, on data, or on both?

4. To expand information about the idea, ask

   - Could we hear more?
   - How might we find out more about your views?
   - How can we help you build your ideas?
   - Do you have other reasons for saying that?
   - What would be examples of your idea?

5. To clarify how long the person has held an idea, ask

   - Is this a current belief you hold?
   - Have you been feeling this way long?
   - Do you feel you will always think that?

6. To clarify crucial factors, ask

   - Which event was most significant in cuasing you to feel this way?
   - What incident aided you most in forming your point of view?

7. To point out inconsistencies, ask

   - Is this consistent with other points of view you have expressed?

8. To question the usefulness of an idea, ask

   - Would it be beneficial for us?
   - Could we make that idea work for our group?
   - Is it something you (value) (like) (need)?
   - What are some bad aspects of the idea?

9. To consider consequences, ask

- If we were to use your idea, what might we anticipate?
- If implemented, would your idea create a better situation?
- Where will your idea take us?

10. To clarify the strength of an idea, ask

- How sure are you?
- Could any other points of view be valid?

11. To consider alternatives, ask

- What other choices might the group make?
- Was this your only choice?
- What other possibilities are there?

12. To point out similarities and dissimilarities of ideas, ask

- In what ways is your idea similar to Bill's?
- Where do you and Bill differ?

13. To summarize, ask

- Can one of you recall the facts we discussed?
- Who can play back the data we have uncovered?

14. To provide an opportunity for insight and evaluation, ask

- If given the opportunity to present this idea again, what would you do differently?
- How did you feel while we were discussing this idea?
- Would you share an idea with this group again?

15. To encourage people to share other ideas, ask questions which would

- Help a group test to see if one member's belief is universally accepted
- Test limitations of a person's ideas
- Give a person the chance to list exceptions to his or her ideas
- Encourage a per son to list alternatives to an idea
- Bring out evidence counter to a person's ideas
- Cause a group to locate inconsistencies in a proposal
- Cause persons to inspect the credibility of their information sources

Adapted from materials prepared by Rural Education Program, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

LISTENING TRIADS: PRACTICE IN COMMUNICATION SKILLS

GOAL: To develop skills in active listening.
To study barriers to effective listening.

GROUP SIZE: Unlimited number of triads.

TIME REQUIRED: Approximately 45 minutes.

MATERIALS:

I. Listening Triads Topics for Discussion Sheet for each participant.

II. Listening Triads Questions for Discussion Sheet for each participant.

PHYSICAL SETTING: Room large enough for triads to be seated apart to avoid noise interference.

PROCESS:

I. The facilitator briefly discusses the goals of the activity.

II. Triads are formed.

III. Participants in each triad identify themselves as A, B, or C.

IV. The facilitator distributes copies of the Topics for Discussion Sheet.

V. The following instructions are given by the facilitator:

1. Participants A is the first speaker and chooses the topic to be discussed from those listed.

2. Participant B is the first listener.

3. Participant C is the first observer.

4. The topic chosen is to be discussed by the speaker. The listener may use any of the four communication skills* to gain understanding. It is important that he be sensitive to the capacity of the listener.

5. The listener must summarize in his own words and without notes.

6. If the summary is thought to be incorrect, both the speaker and the observer are free to interrupt and correct any misunderstanding.

7. The observer is to make certain that the listener not omit, distort, add to, or interpret what the speaker has said and give feedback on communications skills.

8. The total process of speaking and summarizing will take seven minutes in each round.

VI. Round 1 is begun. The facilitator stops the process after seven minutes and responds to precedural questions.

VII. Participant B then becomes the speaker, participant C the listener, and participant A the observer. The new speaker chooses his topic and begins. Round 2 should also take seven minutes.

VIII. Then C becomes the speaker, A the listener, and B the observer. After seven minutes, the discussion in Round 3 ends.

IX. The facilitator distributes copies of the Listening Triads Questions for Discussion Sheet, and triads discuss their progress. Then generalizations about barriers to effective listening are elicited from the entire group.

VARIATIONS:

1. Topics for discussion may be generated within the group. The facilitator may ask, "What are some topics about which there is likely to be disagreement within this group?" Suggestions are posted for use in the exercise.

2. Participant expectations about the training event can be discussed within the listening triads format.

3. Instead of only one speaker during each of the three rounds, there can be two speakers. Each must paraphrase what he hears before he responds. (The role of observer rotates from round to round.)

4. Instead of telling the speaker what is heard, the listener can report what he remembers to the observer, with the speaker free to interrupt.

5. A fourth round can be added, in which each of the participants both speak about and listens to another topic. This three-way conversation is a practice session for using what is learned in the earlier rounds.

6. Whenever two participants do not seem to be speaking and/or listening effectively to each other, the facilitator may observe or ask the entire group to referee.

7. During Round 1, the listener can be instructed to "parrot" the speaker, repeating word for word. In the second round the listener paraphrases, and in the third round the listener reflects the feelings being expressed by the speaker. A final round incorporates all three listening modes.

LISTENING TRIADS QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION SHEET

1. What difficulties did you experience in each of the roles--speaker, listener, and observer?

2. What barriers to effective listening emerged during the exercise?

3. What did you learn about the effectiveness of your self-expression?

4. What applications might you make of the communication skills?

5. How are the four communications skills used in groups you work with?

Modified from "Listening Triads: Building Communication Skills, "A Handbook of Structured Experiences", Volume 1, Page 31, Pfeiffer & Jones.

PLANNING GROUP MEETINGS

A common trait of successful group meetings is good planning. What elements of planning assure top results? The planning procedure for both information meetings and work/study meetings includes the following steps:

DEFINING THE MEETING'S PURPOSE.
DEFINING THE AUDIENCE YOU WILL BE WORKING WITH.
MATCHING THE PURPOSE AND AUDIENCE TO THE CONTENT OF THE MEETING.
MATCHING THE PURPOSE, AUDIENCE, AND CONTENT TO PROCEDURES FOR CONDUCTING THE MEETING.
EVALUATING YOUR PLAN.

DEFINING THE MEETING'S PURPOSE

To help you define the purpose of a meeting, try this simple exercise:
Put down, in general terms, the purpose of the meeting.
Then, set down the actions you want to see people take after the meeting is concluded.

Repeat this procedure until you are happy with the results. Ask others to help you. Your meeting will have a clear focus when you know what you want it to achieve and what kinds of action you want from participants.

DEFINING THE AUDIENCE YOU WILL BE WORKING WITH

What audience is your meeting aimed at? What do members of your audience already know about the Title I process? What do they expect? Are they friendly or hostile? Do they want to change or stay the same? What do they want to know? What is relevant to them? Keep asking yourself questions until you feel comfortable with the definition of the audience you will be working with.

PLANNING THE SESSION'S CONTENT

Go back and take a good look at your purpose and audience. Do you want to provide general information or do you want to help your audience study something in great detail?

If your purpose is to inform, here are some useful clues:

1. Make the content simple. Speak about one thing at a time in ways people will readily understand. Raise an issue, discuss it, solve it and move on to the next. Use words everyone knows and explain the content in an orderly way.

2. Make the content concrete. Avoid abstract and generalized references. Talk about people doing things. Use action words. Go to your audience, do not make them come to you.

3. Make the session as short as possible. In explaining the content, the idea is not to tell it all, but to tell all that is necessary. To know what your audience is seeking and will tolerate helps you know when your job is done. Do not wait for them to hit you on the head with a club before you stop. Set a time limit if necessary.

If you want to examine an issue in great detail, your methods will be different. You will no doubt find it necessary to employ abstract ideas and theories. You will want to show the relationships between concepts and between theory and practice. To do this you may need to introduce new words.

You will want members of your audience to come to you more as they seek and request information. You do not want to rush them and will often find yourself waiting for them. You will also want to provide for evaluation--evaluation of new skills, knowledge, and attitudes and evaluation of the meeting itself. As you can see, the content of information meetings and work/study meetings varies, thus requiring different methods of presentation.

PROCEDURES: PLANNING HOW TO PRESENT CONTENT

Taking into account the purposes, audience, and content of the meeting, it is now time to plan how to present the content. As you plan, remember that each group is unique, as are the individuals in it. Remember, too, that procedures are important. A procedure which is good for one group might be bad for another. In fact, procedures that work well with one group at one time might not work with the same group at another time. The proper selection and use of procedures can mean the difference between a poor meeting and a terrific one. The following suggestions might help you determine the usefulness of different procedures.

1. Determine what kind of people you are working with. Look at needs, interests, background, knowledge, age and physical condition; then find ways to get your ideas across which fit these considerations.

2. Know the size of the group. Certain procedures work better with large groups, others with small groups.

3. Consider the surroundings. The setting should be appropriate for those involved. Some procedures require a particular arrangement of chairs, a blackboard, or small meeting rooms.

4. Determine what help you will need. Some procedures require that someone possess special skills such as leadership or writing skills. Some procedures require equipment such as a movie, slide, or overhead projectors.

5. Consider the procedures themselves. Review the appropriate uses of a procedure, its advantages and limitations. Make sure your procedure matches your purposes, audience and content.

The following are some examples of procedures you may wish to use for information meetings:

A speech.
A demonstration or example.
A group discussion.
An interview (a presentation before an audience in which a resource person responds to systematic questioning).
A panel discussion.
An audience reaction team (people planted in the audience to interrupt a speaker and seek clarification on points).
A question and answer period.

When planning work/study meetings to cover learning in more depth, you might wish to consider some of the following procedures:

1. All of those listed above for information.
2. A committee appointed or elected to perform a task that cannot be done efficiently by the whole group.
3. Field trips, in which a group visits places or things of interest for firsthand observation and study.
4. Role-playing--acting out a situation, condition, or circunstance by selected members of a group.
5. Buzz sessions in which several small groups meet simultaneously to discuss a topic or perform a task.
6. Brainstorming--a spontaneous outpouring of ideas pertinent to an area of interst or a particular need.
7. A seminar led by consultants (recognized authorities).
8. A symposium--a series of related speeches (2-5) by people qualified to speak on different phases of the same topic or closely related topics.

Three Approaches to Work/Study Meetings

Any of these approaches might call for any of the procedures already mentioned.

1. Base the session on the interests and needs of participants. Emphasize individual skills and knowledge and encourage participants to work out a program of personal study.

2. Place emphasis on problem solving. Present the group with life-like situations in order to provide practice for actual situations.

3. Emphasize "data-based instruction." Present an organized body of knowledge to learners to raise issues for their consideration.

AGENDA SHARING

Purpose of Activity: Participants will have a common understanding of what will go on during the workshop, the purposes of the workshop; participants will have the opportunity to seek clarification and to make suggestions about the workshop.

Process:

1. Leader prepares a general topical outline for the meeting on butcher paper. The purpose of the meeting is listed on another sheet.

2. During the activity, the leader shares the overall content for the meeting (on butcher paper).

3. The leader shares the purposes of the workshop.

4. The leader asks for any questions about the agenda and purposes:

   Is there anything on the agenda that is not clear to you?

   Is there anything that you expected that is not on the agenda?

   Do you have any concerns about this agenda?

5. Items may be added or rearranged if necessary.

PREPARING FOR A MEETING - A CHECKLIST

Participants in meetings should feel that the time they have spent has been worthwhile. Although no one can guarantee that all meetings will be regarded as meaningful, the chairperson can take some steps to make them as effective as possible by carefully arranging for facilities and materials or by asking another person to make those arrangements.

The checklist presented below can be used by any person who assumes this responsibility.

ITEM	Arrangement Completed
1. Space	
a. The room is large enough that several small groups can meet simultaneously.	_____
b. The room can accommodate a single large group.	
c. The walls can be used to post newsprint.	
d. Both temperature and ventilation can be controlled.	
2. Access	_____
a. Keys are available to all space that will be used.	
b. Restrooms are accessible.	
c. A phone is available.	
d. Duplicating equipment is available, if desired.	
3. Furniture	_____
a. Tables and chairs are plentiful.	
b. Furniture can be moved around freely.	
c. Ashtrays are available.	
4. Materials	_____
a. Enough easels and chalkboards are available for writing.	
b. An overhead projector or audio/video tape recorder is available, if desired.	
c. Newsprint, markers, and masking tape area ready.	
d. Clipboards, paper, pencils and pens are supplied.	
e. Plenty of chalk is handy.	
5. Refreshments	_____
a. Food and drink is prepared.	
b. Napkins, cups and paper plates are on hand.	

Adapted from materials prepared by "Rural Education Program," Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory.

SURVEY TECHNIQUE

SURVEY AS A GROUP AGREEMENT

Group functioning is improved if members have clear expectations of what kinds of behavior are expected of them as a group member.

In a survey, any member may ask for the opinions of all others at any time. The requesting member states what he wants to know from the total group. Some other member then paraphrases or clarifies the question until all understand what they are being asked. Each person, in turn, briefly states his current position on the topic in two or three sentences.

Each person should be as brief as possible while still being clear, but he need not restrict himself to yes or no. He may say that he is uncertain, that he is confused and wants to hear more, or he can simply say that he does not wish to talk about it. A group using the survey should not allow an individual to remain completely silent. If someone does not want to speak, he must at least say explicitly he wants to say nothing. This assures the group of bringing up to date it knowledge of every member's point of view on the question and of doing so through explicit statements, and presumptions.

As soon as everyone in the group has stated his position, the specilaist or a member of the group asks one or two members to summarize the group's position.

A survey is not a vote. It does not bind the group or its members. A survey must be taken at the time it is requested; it suspends any other activity.

CONSENSUS TECHNIQUE

CONSENSUS MEANS THAT--

- All participants contribute. Everyone's opinions are used and encouraged. Differences are viewed as helpful rather than hindering.
- Everyone can paraphrase the issue.
- Everyone has a chance to express feelings about the issue.
- Those members who continue to disagree indicate that they are willing to experiment for a prescribed period of time.
- All members share in the final decision.

CONSENSUS DOES NOT MEAN THAT--

- A vote is unanimous.
- The result of everyone's first choice.
- Everyone agrees (only that there is enough support for the decision to be carried out).
- Conflict or resistance will be overcome immediately.

Not all decisions should be made by consensus. The most important point is that everyone agrees on how decisions are to be made.

BRAINSTORMING WITH A GROUP

Brainstorming is a handy method for helping a group learn how to tap its own resources in s short period of time. A few basic ground rules help to keep brainstorming sessions productive and rewarding.

- Present the topic clearly. Write it on a blackboard, flip-chart, or newsprint so that everyone can read it.
- Write down all suggestions. One idea promotes others.
- Do not screen or sort suggestions.
- If possible, write down the exact words of the contributor. However, if the statement is too long, write down a shorter version of it which the contributor agrees is accurate.
- Move rapidly from one item to the next.
- Discussion must be for the purpose of clarifying the meaning rather than the worth of an idea.
- Encourage spontaneous ideas as well as carefull considered ones.
- Seek ideas from the whole group rather than from a few vocal individuals.
- Have a spotter to help solicit ideas and one or more persons to help record them.
- Set a time limit or a maximum number of items before you begin. Five or ten minutes is usally enough time.
- Make sure group members understand that they will sort and evaluate the ideas after the brainstorming is completed.

Adapted from materials prepared by Rural Education Program, Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory

GOAL-SETTING WITH A GROUP

PURPOSE: To help group members generate data that can be used in setting shared goals and planning program activities.

TIME REQUIRED: 2 - 4 hours

MATERIALS: pencils, 3 X 5 cards, newsprint, tape and markers

DIRECTIONS:

1. Facilitator introduces the activity by discussing the need for a shared goal and program plan. Goals can be defined as broad, general statements of the end we want to achieve. These strategies are especially helpful when evaluating work and engable the staff to "keep on target" as they work.

2. Facilitator asks each group member to use a 3 X 5 card and answer the following question:

   What kind of activities would you like to see our program doing two years from now?

   Group members are encouraged to be creative and make a "wish-list." Facilitator should allow 5-15 minutes for this work.

3. Facilitator asks individuals to share their responses in trios and, as a small group, come to agreement on a list that represents their ideas. Newsprint and markers are provided. Facilitator should allow 10-20 minutes for this work and ask each trio (small group) to display their list, (this is a good time for a coffee break).

4. When the lists are displayed, the facilitator asks someone from each group to report to the large group about their list. Each small group reports. Allow 5-10 minutes for each small group report.

5. Facilitator then asks group to suggest categories that emerge from the lists. Facilitator may use a colored marker to circle similar items on all the lists in order to emphasize the similarity. Facilitator leads the group in categorizing items from the list. Allow 15-30 minutes, depending on the number of lists.

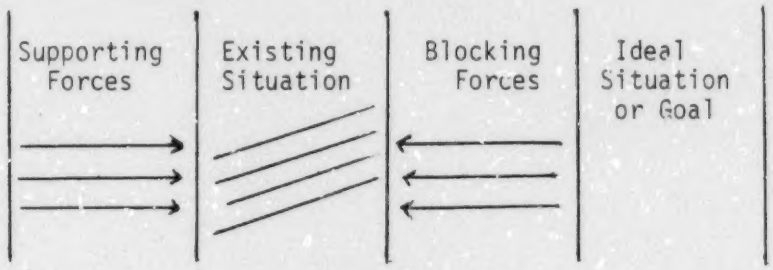
6. Facilitator then asks group to suggest a possible goal statement based on the category and leads a brainstorming session of ways to achieve that goal.

FOR EXAMPLE: Category: SENIOR CITIZENS PROGRAMS
Goal Statements: AGENCY X will provide improved and expanded programs for senior citizens.
Brainstorm list: Expand the RSVP PROGRAM. Use seniors as tutors in the schools; use seniors as helpers in the daycare center; find ways to offer craft classes for seniors; get a van for a senior bus; take seniors to movie matinees; get more public health clinics for seniors, etc.

Prepared by Vicki Braglio Luther

FORCE-FIELD ANALYSIS

Force-field analysis is a method that allows people to identify conditions that help or prevent them from reaching a goal. The following diagram illustrates the concept of force-field analysis.



Gap or Problem

The problem is seen as the gap between what is and what is desired.

To conduct a force-field analysis, use the following steps:

1. Clearly state the goal or desired situation.
2. Identify the situation "as it is."
3. Brainstorm the forces which will help you reach your goal.
4. Brainstorm the forces which prevent you from changing the present situation.
5. Prioritize the negative forces in order of the most significant obstacles which can be dealt with.
6. Brainstorm possible solutions to the prioritized list of obstacles.
7. Create an action plan based on these solutions.

LEADERSHIP AS PERSUASION AND ADAPTATION

THE CONTINGENCY MODEL

By combining ideas from the situational approach and the study of leadership styles, a fourth approach to leadership was developed (Fiedler, 1964). This model maintains that effective leadership depends not only on a leader's personal style, but also on the characteristics of a situation. The contingency model is an exciting step in our understanding of leadership, because it refutes the simplistic and one-dimensional explanations of the earlier approaches. Nevertheless, this model, too, is unsatisfying since it ignores the leader's personal ability to control himself and his situation.

ASSUMPTIONS OF FOUR APPROACHES

In order to understand more fully these four approaches to small-group leadership, it is helpful to identify the assumptions on which they are based.

1. The trait approach maintains that a person either does or does not possess the particular traits that are considered to be the determinants of leadership.

2. The situational appraoch assumes that certain situations call for certain types of leadership and that the leaders will be those who best fit the requirements of a situation. The situational characteristics are viewed as the determinants of leadership.

3. The follower appraoch holds that the needs of group members determine who will lead. Leadership, then, is a coincidence between the needs of a membership and the abilities that a person happens to possess. The members' needs are assumed to be the key determinants of leadership.

4. The contingency model maintains that personal styles and situational characteristics combine to determine leadership. A "proper match" between styles and situations determines who will lead a group.

These assumptions show that each of the four major approaches to leadership shares a basic orientation: each approach maintains, at least implicitly, that there is a static quality to leadership, a quality that can be isolated and described apart from leaders who operate in particular group situations. A leader's active involvement in the small-group process has been overlooked, ruling out the possibility that a leader can, like any other human being, adapt himself and his behavior in order to enhance his own effectiveness.

A static conception of leadership, therefore, in inaccurate. Small groups are characterized by contingencies--by a lack of certainty regarding events that may occur. Once we acknowledge this dynamic nature of small groups, it becomes clear that a useful theory of leadership must be similarly dynamic. By considering a rhetorical perspective on the process of leading, we can focus on the dynamic nature of leadership and the possibilities for human control over contingent situations.

Group leadership has been of interest to scholars and practitioners in the social sciences since man first began studying his own behaviors. A great deal of attention has been directed toward such questions as "What are the characteristics of task leaders?" "What are the variables that affect the emergence and maintenance of leadership in problem-solving groups?" "What is the best method of training leaders?" As a result of the many different orientations, however, there is a lack of consistency in research findings about leadership. No one really seems to know what "good leadership" is (Lumsden, 1974). Nevertheless, it is essential to understand the nature of leadership and the ways in which we can improve it.

PREVIOUS APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

There are several approaches that have been prominent in recent research concerned with the determinants of leadership. The "trait approach," the "situational approach," the "follower approach," and the "contingency model" have been proposed as explanations of the factors that determine leadership in small groups.

THE TRAIT APPROACH

The first concentrated attempt to define the factors that result in leadership was the "trait approach." Enormous amounts of time and effort were devoted to constructing lists of the physical and psychological attributes believed to differentiate leaders from nonleaders. Unfortunately there was minimal agreement among researchers as to what those distinguishing traits were. The lists of "definitive qualities of leaders" were almost as numerous as the researchers who constructed them. Of several hundred traits studied, only a very few were consistently correlated with leadership (Shaw, 1971). Gouldner (1950) reviewed the empirical concerning the existence of universal leadership traits" (p.34). The trait approach is unsatisfactory because it implies that leaders are born, not made.

THE FOLLOWER APPROACH

Although the situational approach is currently endorsed by many researchers, a third orientation to leadership has received some acceptance. The "follower approach" maintains that the most effective leaders are those most able to satisfy the needs or desires of a group of followers (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1974; Sanford, 1950). The follower approach is inadequate because it implies that the emergence and maintenance of leadership is dependent on followers, not on a leader's own skills.

A RHETORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON LEADERSHIP

As a philosophy of human action, beginning with the writings of ancient thinkers such as Aristotle and Cicero, rhetoric is based on the belief that humans can control their effectiveness through the discovery and management of behaviors that take place in relation to other people. Man is seen as a purposeful agent who can consciously control his own actions and, therefore, the ways in which others respond to him.

A rhetorical perspective on small-group leadership rejects claims that there are static determinants of leadership. Leading is a process, a persuasive process in which a leader achieves effectiveness by the careful selection and management of his actions within a particular group situation. He has the potential to control himself, his situation, and his membership through the use of symbolic behavior. A rhetorical perspective on leadership, then, is characterized by two features: (1) the persuasive nature of the leading process and (2) the recognition that humans can control their environments by adapting to social cirumstances.

VALUE OF A RHETORICAL PERSPECTIVE

A rhetorical perspective on leadership offers a realistic and useful means for understanding how leaders emerge, how they maintain their power, and how they build effective , cohesive groups.

A second value of a rhetorical perspective is its potential as a strategy for training leaders. Unlike previous methods of training, a rhetorical approach does not provide any "recipes" for success. Instead, it offers potential leaders a useful way of thinking about themselves in relation to a group and its task. By viewing themselves from a rhetorical perspective, leaders could analyze their own behaviors and the situations in which they are to lead. Potential leaders would be able to assess the interplay among the forces of themselves, their goals, their group members, and their group situations. Given a rhetorical orientation to their work, leaders would be able to plan actions that would probably be effective in their particular circumstances.

Every group situation is different--the rules must vary according to the situations and the people involved. A rhetorical perspective on leadership, viewed as process of persuasion and adaptation, offers a useful method of analysis for leaders of problem-solving groups.

Adapted from materials developed by University Associates, Inc.

T-P LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

DIRECTIONS: The following items describe aspects of leadership behavior. Respond to each item according to the way you would most likely act if you were the leader of a work group. Circle whether you would most likely behave in the described way: always (A), frequently (F), occasionally (O), seldom (S), or never (N).

A F O S N 1. I would most likely act as the spokesman of the group.

A F O S N 2. I would encourage overtime work.

A F O S N 3. I would allow members complete freedom in their work.

A F O S N 4. I would encourage the use of uniform procedures.

A F O S N 5. I would permit the members to use their own judgment in solving problems.

A F O S N 6. I would stress being ahead of competing groups.

A F O S N 7. I would speak as a representative of the group.

A F O S N 8. I would needle members for greater effort.

A F O S N 9. I would try out my ideas in the group.

A F O S N 10. I would let the members do their work the way they think best.

A F O S N 11. I would be working hard for a reward or recognition.

A F O S N 12. I would tolerate postponement and uncertainty.

A F O S N 13. I would speak for the group if there were visitors present.

A F O S N 14. I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace.

A F O S N 15. I would turn the members loose on a job and let them go to it.

A F O S N 16. I would settle conflicts when they occur in the group.

A F O S N 17. I would get swamped by details.

A F O S N 18. I would represent the group at outside meetings.

A F O S N 19. I would be reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action.

A F O S N 20. I would decide what should be done and how it should be done.

A F O S N 21. I would push for increased efficiency.

A F O S N 22. I would let some members have authority which I could keep.

A F O S N 23. Things would usually turn out as I had predicted.

A F O S N 24. I would allow the group a high degree of initiative.

A F O S N 25. I would assign group members to particular tasks.

A F O S N 26. I would be willing to make changes.

A F O S N 27. I would ask the members to work harder.

A F O S N 28. I would trust the group members to exercise good judgment.

A F O S N 29. I would schedule the work to be done.

A F O S N 30. I would refuse to explain my actions.

A F O S N 31. I would persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage.

A F O S N 32. I would permit the group to set its own pace.

A F O S N 33. I would urge the group to beat its previous record.

A F O S N 34. I would act without consulting the group.

A F O S N 35. I would ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

T_____ P_____

Adapted from "A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training," prepared by University Associates, Inc.

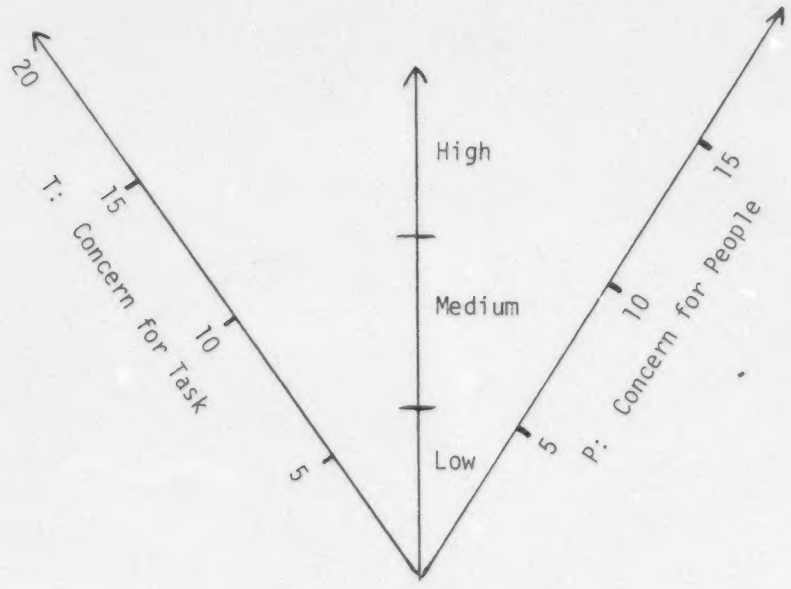
T-P LEADERSHIP-STYLE PROFILE SHEET

Name_____ Group_____

Directions: To determine your style of leadership, mark your score on the **concern for task** dimension (T) on the left-hand arrow below. Next move to the right-hand arrow and mark your score on the **concern for people** dimension (P). Draw a streight line that intersects the P and T scores. The point at which that line crosses the **shared leadership** arrow indicates your score on that dimension.

SHARED LEADERSHIP RESULTS FROM
BALANCING CONCERN FOR TASK AND CONCERN FOR PEOPLE

Autocratic Leadership	**Shared Leadership**	**Laissez-Faire Leadership**
High Productivity	High Morale and Productivity	High Morale



Adapted from "A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training," prepared by University Associates, Inc.

EVALUATION FORM

DIRECTIONS: Please give your candid reactions to this meeting by rating it on the seven-point scale below. Circle the appropriate number on the scale to represent your evaluation. Your comments are appreciated.

1. What did you think of the meeting?

A waste of time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Much was accomplished

2. What should have been done to improve the meeting? List suggestions.

3. What should the leader have done? List suggestions.

4. What might you have done to help the meeting?